DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 292 334 FL 017 251

AUTHOR Lange, Dale L.
TITLE Articulation: A Resolvable Problem?
PUB DATE 88
NOTE 22p.; In: Lalande, John F. II, Ed., Shaping the Future of Language Education: FLES, Articulation, and Proficiency. Report of Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Language; see FL 017 249.
PUB TYPE Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Articulation (Education); Correlation; Course Descriptions; *Curriculum Development; Institutional Cooperation; *Instructional Materials; Second Language Instruction; *Second Language Programs; *Student Role; Teacher Effectiveness; *Teacher Role; Teaching Methods; Testing

ABSTRACT

Articulation remains a significant problem in language education as in education in general. The particular concern is that articulation is targeted toward programs and not toward learners. Specific language teaching methods, and use of more-uniform teaching materials and testing have been used to cope with the problem. However, a broader definition of articulation emphasizes the interconnectedness of content, curriculum, and instruction as they facilitate student learning. The interrelationships of the three elements are vital to resolutions of the issue. Several principles help resolve the problem: careful curriculum development, feedback to students that relates to their learning, monitoring at all levels and by a variety of methods, use of carefully chosen and appropriate materials, less emphasis on grammar, teacher preparation that focuses on these interrelationships and, most important, communication and cooperation for the student's benefit. (MSE)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

2

Articulation: A Resolvable Problem?

Dale L. Lange
University of Minnesota

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

L. Fiddle

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ED292334

Introduction

Articulation is a problem about which there is much discussion. While this article explores the problem again, defines the concept in somewhat different terms, and provides some direction toward its resolution, there is no guarantee that the resolution will occur. The particular concern is that articulation is targeted toward programs and not toward learners. Programs involve goals, outcomes, objectives, tests, equipment, space, and materials, including the text. They are basically inanimate. Teachers serve as the delivery system. In this sense they are inanimate too. Students are the raw material in the formula. They receive a program through the teacher. That program is supposed to be "learned." The student demonstrates his or her learning of this program on multiple-choice tests. Scores are matched with national norms. Judgments are made of student success in a program. If the judgment is positive, a stamp of approval is given, just as with the dishwasher or automobile that comes off the assembly line. The inanimate industrial/technological model as applied to educational programs treats the student as inanimate as well.

FL019251

Because of built-in features of accountability, the technological model appeals greatly to the planners of education in state legislatures, governors' offices, state departments of education, and school district central offices. And let us not forget business groups! They *are* the corporate taxpayers. When united as a large lobbying force, the power of

the business groups is dramatic. Not only business, but *all* of these entities want to know the "bottom line." Is the money well spent? Do students learn? How much do they learn? Do they exceed the national norms on the SATs? If not, how can competitiveness be built into education? By open enrollment (students could attend any school of their choice in the state)? By public comparison of test scores of all students on national assessment measures from elementary through senior high school? By eliminating teachers whose students do not meet or exceed the national norms? In all of these questions, and in much of the discussion surrounding them, the student is seen as an object, an assembly-line commodity, again the raw material of the education process. The articulation, or coordination, of the various aspects in the education process continues to be problematic. Articulation of foreign language education presents the same concern for the individual learner.

The purpose of this article is to examine the issue of articulation, putting the focus on the learner in language education. In addition to a review of some familiar aspects of articulation, a broader focus will be given to the concept. And finally, some principles relating to articulation are given, both for discussion and for implementation.

Forms of Articulation: Method, Text Materials, Testing

Articulation is based on the assumption that teachers are working toward the same general goal; namely, that students are learning a language for the purpose of becoming competent in *using* it. The desired outcome of language learning is that students can comprehend written or spoken language and communicate orally and in writing.

In language education, three approaches are used to articulate programs toward that general goal. These are (1) choice of method, (2) choice of texts, and (3) testing.

First, we have been searching for the all-encompassing "method" of language teaching/learning to ensure articulation. The several attempts to find such a method have been inconclusive. The "classical" studies of Scherer and Wertheimer (27) and Smith (28) ascertain basically that "students tend to learn what they are taught." And maybe even further, these studies suggest that, as Higgs (16) has indicated, the "search for

the Holy Grail" is fruitless. In years of searching, no one single, monolithic "method" has been uncovered. And yet, the search continues (Blair, 6; Larsen-Freeman, 22; Oller and Richard-Amato, 24). Richards and Rodgers (26) are skeptical of the global effectiveness of "methods." They argue strongly for the examination of "method" in relation to the curriculum being taught. They suggest that curricular content and goals may be more important than "method" because the curriculum focuses on *what* students will actually learn. Stern (30), in a detailed analysis, suggests that the many "methods" examined are "inadequate for conceptualizing and interpreting language teaching. And finally, there is also some doubt that a single method can account for all of student learning." In other words, it is not possible for all students to simultaneously learn the same things at the same time with the same "method." This expectation is simply inconceivable because of the variation in *human* learning. The search for the single "method" is not a viable approach to the resolution of the articulation problem.

The *second* approach to ensuring articulation is text materials. Here the assumption is also relatively simple. When we find the "right" text series, the issue of articulation resolves itself. When students are working with articulated materials, they will work with the same language, read the same things, know the same vocabulary, learn the same grammar, and demonstrate the same learning. Even though students use the same texts, they do not seem to be able to communicate and comprehend as we would like them to. And they are even deficient in the one thing that we think that they have learned, *grammar*. The search for the "right" text series, like that for "method" continues without success. No text series has yet produced the outcomes that we expect.

Ariew (4) suggests that the choice for text is based on economic and political realities, rationale for foreign language study, and available methodologies. While there is no question about the importance of such considerations in text selection, probably more important is the reality that text material development is controlled by publishers, as well as by proposals to influence what is taught in schools and colleges. In his most recent book, Apple (3) characterizes this control on text materials in two

ways. *First*, publishers are caught between the production of a commodity and the responsibilities to guard the general culture. In many instances, it appears that the profit motive wins. Text materials are produced for courses and programs that will generate profit for the company and the author(s). The expectation is that the text will last for several years and require little revision, thereby giving high profits to the publisher. When such a motive exists, it is not really possible for materials to respond to the developments in the field of second language learning. In language education, there are even some examples of text materials that have existed for forty years with only minor revisions. The reports on, and proposals for, educational reform such as *A Nation at Risk* (23) and the *Paideia Proposal* (Adler, 1) also have an effect on the kinds of outcomes expected of learning, the *second* means of control of texts. As political documents, such reports focus education toward the economic, political, and security needs of a world in transition. The resulting influence on education is the reproduction of well-established knowledge, with emphasis on the function of that knowledge as the keeper of the status quo. In this case, education is turned inward and becomes protective. It cannot recognize the transition from an older order to a newer one. And the result is the reduction of education to knowledge or information. The process of applying this knowledge to a larger context is largely ignored.

And so it is with language education. Text materials respond little to the research, experience, and knowledge gained about language education in the last twenty years. Teachers continue to draw on materials that are based on older assumptions and that sell for publishers. Even the so-called "proficiency-oriented" texts focus largely on grammar. And the fear, resulting from the conservative reform movement, is that emphasis on knowledge and information will continue the age-old stress on grammar, ignoring the students' need to comprehend and communicate.

The *third* approach to ensure articulation is testing. In many curricula, it is the test that "drives" the curriculum. And the craving in American education for accountability is manifested in testing. Not only is the curriculum directed to the test, but the test, which is supposed to pinpoint student learning, effectively reduces it only to the visible, the

knowable, and the finite. The tests emphasize those programmatic aspects that can easily be tested by the ubiquitous multiple-choice, true-false, or fill-in-the-blank item types—namely grammar, vocabulary, and information. Information processing, comprehension, and communication are essentially left out. Since there is no tradition of testing for communication and comprehension, the main goal that we wish to help students reach is essentially ignored.

Let us also recognize that the relatively strong testing establishment in our educational system has established criteria for validity, reliability, and practicality for large scale testing programs that essentially reduce the kinds of test-item types to those mentioned. How is it possible for the global evaluation of the individual's communicative ability to fit those criteria or those test-item types? While the necessary discussion of this issue cannot be conducted here, the question needs to be raised. We are learning more about communicative tests (Wesche, 33). One such test, the ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), is receiving careful study. It is being subjected to the criteria of the American Psychological Association (2), especially for validity. While such study is useful, the question that has to be raised is, does the concept of validity apply to global evaluation procedures in the same way it applies to tests wherein discrete points are measured? The *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* (Byrnes, et al., 7), based on the concept of "proficiency" inherited from the federal government, is receiving careful scrutiny from those who operate from another concept, "communicative competence" (Valdman, 34). However, politics and personal agendas tend to obscure the issue. And the issue is that, in order to include communication and comprehension in the assessment of student competency in a second language, we need to cooperate in developing the tools for that evaluation. They currently do not exist.

Neither tests of achievement nor tests of language "proficiency" really seem to be able to solve the problem of articulation. Although achievement tests, the usual tests in language programs, relate to elements of language, they are not sufficient to meet the goals of comprehension and communication. And communicative tests, as they currently exist, are not recognized as being adequate to the task of evaluating students' ability to use language.

In the somewhat superficial treatment here, the three approaches

to articulation—method, text materials, and testing—have each, in its turn, been shown to fall short of being an easy way to resolve the articulation problem.

What is Articulation? The 'Easy' Answer!

In a previously published article on this subject, Lange (21) suggested that the "articulation problem" could essentially be resolved by attention to horizontal, vertical, and interdisciplinary/multidisciplinary articulation. Horizontal articulation occurs when there is " . . . agreement on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation procedures within a course level" (Lange, 21, pp. 120–22). (See Figure 1.) Vertical articulation happens when there is "agreement within a program over the direction of the curriculum or between levels of schooling such as between secondary schools and colleges" [on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation procedures] (Lange, 21, pp. 123–25). This type of articulation is illustrated in Figure 2. Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary articulation results from a linkage of the foreign language program with other disciplines, either within the foreign language curriculum itself or outside it (Lange, 21, pp. 125–27). Achieving articulation would seem to be easy because it is defined by the approaches already addressed: method, text materials, and testing procedures. Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary articulation may be the exception. But it, too, is related in many senses to these same approaches.

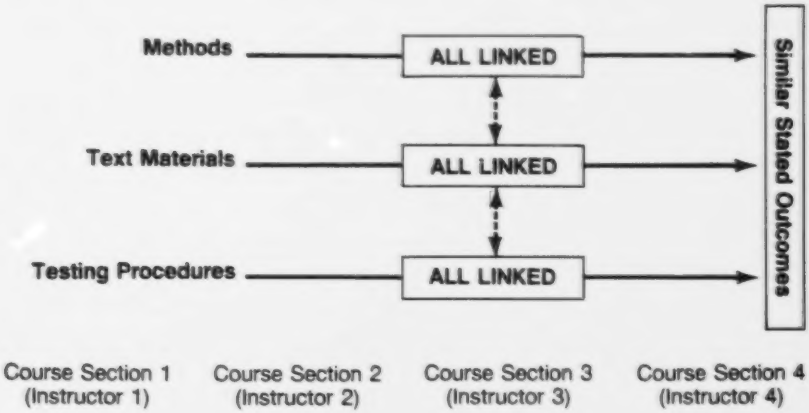
In the previous section, however, the usual approaches of resolving the articulation problem were analyzed and rejected as inadequate. What is left? A broader definition.

Articulation: A Broader, More Useful Definition?

In consideration of the weaknesses of definitions already presented, a broader definition of articulation is required. For these purposes, let us consider the following statement: *Articulation* is both the interrelationship and continuity of contents, curriculum, instruction,

and evaluation within programs which focus on the progress of the student in learning to both comprehend and communicate in a second language.

Figure 1. Horizontal Articulation

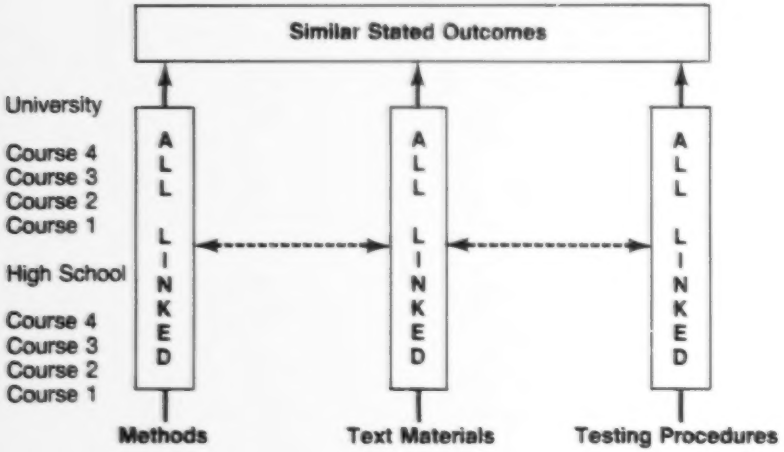


The next several paragraphs explain this definition. Figure 3 puts it into graphic form. Let's look at the concepts of content, curriculum, and instruction and their interrelatedness.

The *content* of language programs has been defined by Stern (29, 31) as being multidimensional; namely as consisting of four interconnected areas: (1) the linguistic syllabus, (2) the cultural syllabus, (3) the communicative syllabus, and (4) the general language education syllabus. Each of these areas will be briefly described.

The linguistic syllabus offers dual content: the structural and functional elements of language. The phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon of a language constitutes the structural element, while the functional element includes topics and situations, as well as the functional and notional language that fit those topics and situations (van Ek, 35). The functional element focuses on the social "rules" of language use (ap-

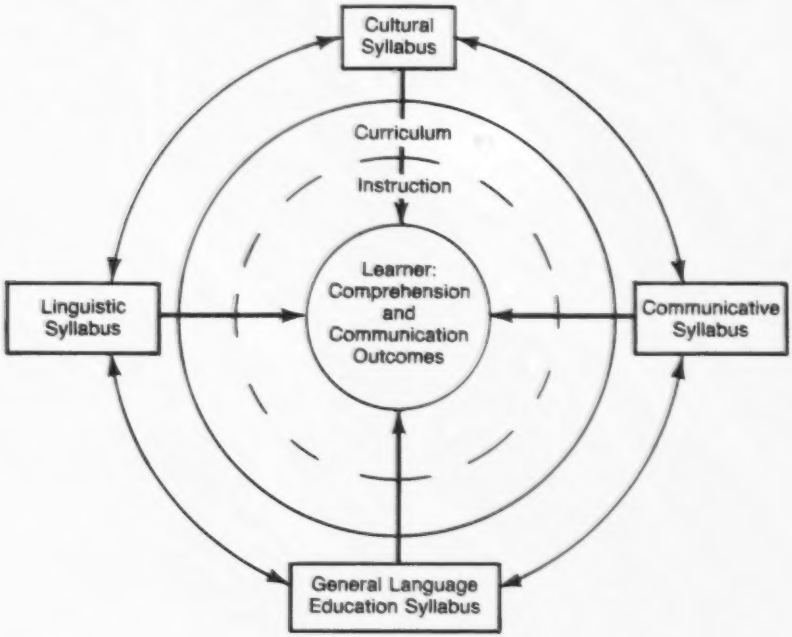
Figure 2. Vertical Articulation



propriateness, register, discourse), while the structural element is centered on the internal structure of language. The inclusion of the linguistic syllabus signals the importance of both structural and functional knowledge of language to the development of comprehension and communication outcomes.

The cultural syllabus includes awareness, knowledge, and understanding of the culture (or cultures) whose language is the focus of learning. Stern also suggests that a certain "proficiency" or behavioral functioning could be contained in this syllabus, although that proficiency is not defined. Topics in a cultural syllabus could include family, the society, political systems, the environment, religion, the arts and the humanities, as well as others, including those of particular interest to students. Crawford-Lange and Lange (10) demonstrate the centrality of this syllabus to the integration of language and culture and the integration of the four syllabuses described here. The cultural syllabus provides the context within which language is used, signaling the importance of the context in the development of competence in understanding and communicating in a second language.

Figure 3. A Model of the Broader Definition of Articulation



In the communicative syllabus, the student participates as a user of the language for communicative purposes. In classrooms, the students might use language for classroom management, for instruction, in conversation with native speakers, in specifically designed activities that focus on situation, topic, or activity (role-play, group discussions, games, simulations), and for personal exchange. The classroom becomes a place where communicative activities take place. With the inclusion of the communicative syllabus as an area of language program content, importance is given to the "never clearly stated" but understood desire of both students and teachers for communicative outcomes.

The general language education syllabus comprises knowledge of language, culture, and society that relates to the *learning* of language.

Stern's several topics for this syllabus, certainly not complete or exclusive, include the following: languages across the world, distinction between language and dialect, relationship between language and thought, learning how to learn a language, bilingualism and multilingualism, grammars and dictionaries, and animal language. Hawkins (14) has also contributed to this concept with an extensive list of topics in an outline of a course in "awareness of language." He organizes this course around four themes and associated learning activities. The themes are as follows: (1) forms of language, (2) structure of language, (3) language in use, and (4) language acquisition (L1 and L2). In one of the subthemes of language in use, How do registers differ?, Hawkins suggests that students should "collect phrases only found in certain registers (e.g., sports commentary/TV advertising/weather forecasting/playground) and describe the characteristics of each register" (p. 300). The purpose for this exercise is to create an awareness of how one's own language is used as a key to becoming aware of language use in the second language. The general language education syllabus informs of the need for students to become familiar with the nature of language and the processes by which we think it is learned, a generally ignored area.

The four syllabuses establish four interconnected aspects of content. While each is represented as a separate entity in Figure 3, they are each shown interacting with each other. Indeed, they are integrally linked, and each exists in relation to the other three. With all four, the content of language programs that focus on comprehension and communication is complete.

The content of language programs becomes the focus of both *curriculum* and *instruction*. While the focus here is on curriculum and instruction separately, they too are integrally linked to content. *Curriculum* development processes determine what learners are to accomplish in a program. These processes have become very limited in recent decades. In fact, one could say they are limited to a single model, the technological model. This model is extremely familiar to everyone and does not require detailed explanation here. Built on the concept of political and economic accountability, the model applies assumptions about assembly-line production to education. A full discussion of the inappropriateness of the assumptions and the model needs to be held elsewhere.

Crawford (8) and Lange (20) list several alternatives to the technological model, while Crawford-Lange and Lange (10) provide an example of a specific alternative to it, a problem-posing education model based on the educational philosophy of Paulo Freire (12).

In an analysis of a variety of curricular models, Crawford-Lange (9) describes the technological model as belonging to a category of curriculum development called "systems-behavioral." That model, elaborated extensively by Banathy and Lange (5), includes a statement of goals, a statement of outcomes for all students, detailed objectives relating to the attainment of those outcomes, and tasks that detail the learning required for the student to reach each of the detailed objectives. The model further outlines the choice of materials related to the outcomes, objectives, and tasks, as well as the distribution of people, machines, and space to meet program needs. The final aspect of the model, one which relates specifically to accountability, is the means by which learning and the curriculum are evaluated. Tests are used to indicate student progress, as well as the quality of the curriculum and, in many instances, the quality of teaching.

The danger of employing the technological model is that the attending outcomes tend to focus on discrete objectives, tasks, and test items pertaining to the sounds of language, its structure, vocabulary, and specific cultural elements. Outcomes like comprehension and communication, because they are less concrete, receive secondary priority. Writing objectives, creating classroom activities, and developing new evaluation procedures for much less definite outcomes are time-consuming and difficult. While this model of curriculum development is not necessarily optimal, its use extends throughout the educational establishment. It will continue to be employed, and so will have to be adapted to meet communicative goals.

Modification of the technological model to limit the risks mentioned above is possible if the focus of the curriculum is oriented to the four syllabuses: linguistic, communicative, cultural, general language learning. With this focus, language programs automatically have the goals that students and teachers seek: communication in writing and

speaking and in comprehension of written and spoken language. Yet recognition is also given to the need to know language, to use culture as content, and to know how language functions and is learned. Goals, outcomes, objectives, classroom tasks, and evaluation take forms that are then appropriate for each syllabus. And most important, both the testing of achievement and evaluation of competence in language use fit the curriculum. In this way, the tendency for attention *only* on specific features of language is balanced with the need for attention to language use. Figure 3 not only shows the interrelation of the four syllabuses, but shows their permeation of both curriculum and instruction.

Instruction is linked to the curriculum. Figure 3 presents broken lines between curriculum and instruction to show the connection. Instruction is the interaction of the curriculum with the learner(s). In the relationship of teacher with learner in the classroom, the "what" is engaged by the "how," the "when," and the "why then." The curriculum is adjusted to the reality of classroom instruction through decision-making models. Decision-making models have evolved from the research on teacher effectiveness. In a section of a monograph entitled "Effective Teaching," Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, and Hasselbring (15) summarize the research, indicating the coaction of several groups of teacher strategies that are effective in developing successful student learning. Established on a data base that has been developed over a period of twenty years, it is argued here that these teacher strategies may be more important to language education than any "method." That statement is made because teacher strategies mesh positively with the tasks required for students to learn and function with any aspect of the four syllabuses in language programs. In other words, the strategies respond more fully to the interaction of teaching and learning than any "method."

What are these strategies? According to Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, and Hasselbring (15), effective teachers function with five different categories of behavior that direct student attention to learning. First, *effective teachers engage students with academic learning time*. Academic learning time is defined as that aspect of allocated time in which students are successful at working on tasks that are associated with desired outcomes (Fischer, et al., 11). In engaging students in academic learning time, several interconnected teacher behaviors play an important role: teachers carefully structure learning space with student

learning tasks; teachers use time wisely, stressing the connection of learning time with success on the outcome of associated tasks; they observe and direct student attention toward learning tasks; teachers demonstrate and discuss the importance they give to high standards, not only for learning, but for interpersonal behavior; teachers give students opportunities to be responsible for their own behavior in a variety of tasks that teachers structure for their benefit; finally, teachers pace instruction in order to allow for the integration of new skills and knowledge with previous learning.

Second, *effective teachers credit student learning that meets desired outcomes.* Ultimately, all students desire to be praised for their work. And all students probably desire to be successful. Effective teachers combine these two wishes. They find a way to reward all students. However, the most important reward is given to bind successful performance on specific tasks to desired outcomes and goals. The rewards can be structured around competitive, cooperative, or individualized learning structures that vary with differing kinds of tasks. Individualized rewards may best be applied to individualistic and mechanical skills, as well as to factual information. Competitive rewards may best be used when teachers desire speed and quantity with drill activities. Teachers use cooperative rewards when they wish to foster retention of basic information, problem-solving ability and creative thinking, verbal skills, and so on. Regardless of how rewards are structured, the focus remains on the tasks students perform successfully within the framework of learning outcomes and somewhat limited time.

Third, *effective teachers engage students interactively.* Teachers using a general interactive strategy direct student attention to the task(s) to be learned; enthusiastically, they explain what, how, and with what expectations the material is to be learned; they focus the students on the task(s) of the lesson; as the student proceeds, the teacher monitors progress and decides either to continue or to adjust instruction; teacher assistance is always available; students are rewarded for learning the task to be mastered and are informed of the progress that must still be made; in the process, the teacher prepares the student to be capable of performing similar tasks independently.

The just described circle of interconnected teacher behaviors has proven important, but may be limited when students need to learn more

than basic skills and information. Cognitive and metacognitive behaviors may be required for higher-order learning (Jones, Palinscar, Ogle, and Carr, 18). And in addition, students need to know the process of learning. For example, they need to be able to access knowledge, understand how to use prior knowledge, monitor task functioning, comprehend when the functioning is inappropriate and adjust it accordingly, use fix-up strategies, and finally assess the functioning of the new strategy. Similar kinds of behavior will be required of second language students with the communicative syllabus. As an example, Tarone (32) outlines categories and subcategories of paraphrase, transfer, and avoidance strategies that people need and probably learn in attempting to communicate orally. And O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (25) contribute a general discussion of the application of cognitive processes to second language acquisition. Second language education is beginning to realize that not all aspects of language learning and acquisition can be explained through a linguistic examination of the issues. Eventually, cognitive aspects will become more important in the teaching of languages just as their importance is being recognized by other curricular areas.

Fourth, *effective teachers maintain and communicate high expectations for student performance*. Teachers apply this behavior to all students. And students know that they are required to participate at a high level of performance according to their ability. In other words, effective teachers communicate not only to the "good" students, but consistently to all students, that they will be treated fairly. The expectation conveyed is that everyone will share in the learning resources, particularly instructional time and the opportunity to perform, everything else being equal. And all students know that there are high standards for acceptable classroom behavior. Critical ingredients in this category are the issues of fairness and consistency. Subtle discrimination through lack of reward, less time with the instructor, and fewer opportunities to perform for lower-achieving students gives them a feeling of inferiority and contributes to less learning. Teachers must be consistent in giving rewards; they must be available to help students; and they must provide opportunity to perform for everyone, regardless of capability.

Fifth, *effective teachers maximize learning time by the use of instructional settings appropriate to the tasks being pursued*. In any learning situation, there are a variety of learners. The question is how can teachers

deal with this diversity to provide maximized learning time? Effective teachers analyze both the tasks and their students to determine whether the task is best handled by large groups, small groups, or on an individualized basis. When that determination has been made, teachers use an appropriate instructional strategy or constellation of strategies. Such strategies may include, among others, direct instruction, mastery learning, individualized instruction, adaptive learning environments, and cognitive education. *Direct instruction* can be used with individuals one-on-one, but is generally the large group practice known to everyone. In *mastery learning*, each step or individual task in a learning sequence is "mastered" according to a set of predetermined criteria before the next task in the sequence is introduced. The emphasis here is on the pacing of instruction. *Individualized instruction* is largely self-paced instruction with individually sequenced alternative learning opportunities that are based on individual diagnosis and prescription. The stress here is on providing more academic learning time for the individual learner. *Adaptive learning environments* combine both mastery learning and individualized instruction. They allow for an individualized pacing of academic learning time. *Cognitive education* enriches learning through emphasis on basic processes of thought, construction of reality, and problem solving. Students are taught how to learn using strategies for remembering, organizing, synthesizing, and conceptualizing information. The emphasis, thus, is on process as well as on the content of learning.

All three means—the content of language education, the stated curriculum, and instructional practice—interrelate to focus on the learner for whom the goals of communication and comprehension or language use have been set. It is with this interrelationship that *articulation* takes place. Articulation is not simply the use of the same text materials for all sections of French 101 or the use of the same method in French I-IV, but rather means that the content, the curriculum, and instruction be closely aligned to meet the goals of communication and comprehension.

It is clear that focusing solely on grammar results in "disarticulation." If the focus of learning is to be on the learner's being able to communicate and comprehend, then attention to the linguistic syllabus gives emphasis to only part of one aspect of linguistic content, leaving out information concerning the use of language utterances. Further, it

ignores language learning, culture, and communicative activity. And of the program's curriculum, only one aspect is pursued. Finally, as far as instruction is concerned, the teacher can use only those teaching strategies that relate to acquisition of information and basic skills. In short, considering grammar as most important in language learning removes attention from the student and the goals of language use; it puts attention rather on the time-honored tradition of language teaching. "If the students don't know the grammar, they know nothing."

Single attention to any one content can affect the outcome of instruction. It skews the curriculum in one direction, affecting instruction. If the teacher were to direct attention only to the content of communicative activity, the curricular program of four interrelating contents would be suspended. Instruction would be focused on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies of language use. What would students be able to do? It is not clear, but certainly the balance among content, curriculum, and instruction would be destroyed. One hypothesis, but only an hypothesis (Higgs and Clifford, 17), is that student progress could be shortened or stop at a plateau. In other words, with stress on communicative activity, students may progress to a certain point and then find it difficult to move forward. It could likewise be hypothesized that focus only on grammar will not permit students to indicate much progress in communicative activity. As a result, it seems that balance among content, curriculum, and instruction may be required for student progress toward the goals of communication and comprehension.

Having a Broader Definition, What Do We Do Now?

There are simply no easy solutions to the question of articulation. There are no precise formulas or "pat" answers. There *is* a lot of hard work. And there are some actions that can be taken.

1. The curriculum needs to be carefully developed. At any educational level, once broad goals have been determined, conscious decisions must be made regarding the outcomes from the program: What is it that we want students to be able to do with language both within a "level" and at the end of the program? Programs that choose communicative goals must still attend to the balance among the four contents. Achievement

and competence tasks related to program outcomes can then be determined. Concomitant instructional strategies or constellations of strategies are stated and developed so that students can receive the necessary instruction to progress toward the outcomes desired. Finally, achievement measures assessing basic skills and information, as well as more global evaluation procedures, must be consciously chosen and developed to indicate the students' growing competence in the four language program contents. The attention given to this arrangement with a broader understanding of the interrelationship of content, curriculum, instruction, and evaluation makes the process work for the benefit of the student.

2. Feedback given to students should relate to their learning. While grades may be important to the entire system, feedback to students and parents from testing and evaluation should indicate progress made and progress yet to be made in attaining desired outcomes. In addition to the A–F grading system, it would be appropriate if students could be given feedback by specific content area within the curriculum. Such a device could be useful in communicating to other teachers and other institutions more specifically what the individual had accomplished and would be useful in placing students into other programs.

3. Instruction in any program requires monitoring. Teachers within a program can monitor each other, even across languages, to ascertain that the agreed-on curriculum and instructional program is being carried out. In large school districts, a coordinator or resource teacher can fulfill that function. On the college level, the supervisor of teaching assistants serves this role. Monitors outside second language education or from other schools, being given knowledge of the program, could also be employed. Testing can also be used as an indirect means of monitoring. It is indirect because it only measures what students have learned, not what they have experienced, nor what they have been taught.

4. Materials need to be carefully examined. Thorough scrutiny of text and other materials is not only appropriate, but necessary. Criteria for the evaluation of such materials can be developed from the achievement and "proficiency" tasks toward which student learning will be aimed since content, curriculum, and tasks have already been agreed upon. The materials should demonstrate a balance among these three so that

appropriate instructional strategies can be adapted to them. That balance is crucial. Where this balance cannot be obtained through the choice of materials, teachers will have to add to them to make sure that the balance is achieved. This latter task is not easy to accomplish alone; groups of teachers will need to share both materials and instructional strategies. Such cooperation and communication results in clearer understanding of program goals and outcomes. They help articulation.

5. The focus on grammar will have to change. There has been much discussion here of the need for balance among content, curriculum, and instructional strategies. Yet, the sole emphasis on grammar continues. One of the major contributors to this emphasis is "the market." Publishers say they cannot sell what is not wanted. The situation can change only when there is an articulated balance among content, curriculum, and instruction. Teachers, curriculum coordinators, and TA coordinators who are responsible for the balance must continually inform publishers of their needs and demand appropriate materials. Publishers are beginning to recognize the need for change; they can be influenced.

6. Teacher preparation is a critical element. Pre- and in-service teachers must have opportunity to recognize and act upon the interrelation of content, curriculum, and instruction. Since teachers are most responsible for instruction, they must concentrate on their use of effective teaching strategies in focusing student learning toward desired communicative outcomes. From regular within-district in-service training, college or university courses, conference workshops, and individual study, teachers learn to become comfortable with new information about their craft. Preservice teacher development in second languages will need to include effective teaching strategies and their connection to the development of language competence. Teaching at the college level requires major attention to strategies of effective teaching. Some universities include TA workshops, in-class evaluation, and a methods course. But these activities are still not focused on the learner.

7. Any endeavor in articulation requires cooperation. This statement offers the key to all articulation efforts. Within school districts, programs can provide students with successful outcomes *only* when teachers at all levels and in all courses work together. Elementary school, middle/junior high school, and senior high school teachers must focus on student learning rather than on themselves. Colleagues from across

university–secondary school lines must meet and confer on the content, outcomes, and instructional practices in their programs for the purposes of accommodation on both sides. State departments of instruction could serve as catalysts to begin these conversations. When communication takes place, when mutual understanding of the different programs can be obtained, and when program outcomes can be discussed, articulation across high school and college/university lines becomes possible. Examples of such cooperation exist in the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction curriculum guide (Grittner, 13) and the development of a new language requirement and testing program at the University of Minnesota (Lange, 19).

Conclusion

Articulation remains a significant problem in education—and language education specifically. Specific language teaching methods, use of similar teaching materials, and testing have been used to "solve" the problem. A broader definition gives emphasis to the interconnectedness of content, curriculum, and instruction as they facilitate student learning. The interrelationships of the three elements are vital to resolutions of the problem. Several principles presented help resolve the problem. But the key factor is people who communicate and cooperate for the benefit of the student. The problem of articulation remains for now.

References

1. Adler, Mortimer J. *The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto.* New York: Collier, 1982.
2. American Psychological Association. *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests.* Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association, 1974.
3. Apple, Michael. *Teachers and Texts: A Political Economy of Class and Gender Relations in Education.* New York and London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1986.
4. Ariew, Robert. "The Textbook as Curriculum," pp. 11–33 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher.* The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1982.
5. Banathy, Bela, and Dale L. Lange. *A Design for Foreign Language Curriculum.* Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath, 1972.
6. Blair, Robert W., ed. *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1982.
7. Byrnes, Heidi, et al. "ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 1986," pp. 15–24 in Heidi Byrnes and Michael Canale, eds., *Defining and Developing Proficiency: Guidelines, Implementations, and Concepts.* The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1987.
8. Crawford, Linda M. "Redirecting Second Language Curricula: Paulo Freire's Contribution."

Foreign Language Annals 14 (1981): 257–68.

9. Crawford-Lange, Linda M. "Curricular Alternatives for Second-Language Learning," pp. 81–112 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 13. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1982.
10. _____, and Dale L. Lange. "Doing the Unthinkable in the Second Language Classroom: A Process for the Integration of Language and Culture, pp. 139–77 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing Principle*. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 15. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook , 1984.
11. Fischer, Charles W., et al. *Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time, and Student Achievement: Final Report of Phase III-B, Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978.
12. Freire, Paulo. *Education for Critical Consciousness*. New York: The Seabury Press, 1973.
13. Grittner, Frank M. *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Foreign Language*. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1985.
14. Hawkins, Eric W. *Modern Languages in the Curriculum*. Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, 1981.
15. Hawley, Willis D., Susan J. Rosenholtz, Henry Goodstein, and Ted Hasselbring. *Good Schools: What Research Says about Improving Student Achievement. Peabody Journal of Education* 61, 4(1984): 1–178. [See especially the section on effective teaching.]
16. Higgs, Theodore V. "Introduction: Language Teaching and the Quest for the Holy Grail," pp. 1–9 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing Principle*. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 15. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1984.
17. _____, and Ray Clifford. "The Push toward Communication," pp.57–79 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 13. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1982.
18. Jones, Beau Fly, Annemarie S. Palincsar, Donna S. Ogle, and Eileen G. Carr, eds. *Strategic Teaching and Learning: Cognitive Instruction in the Content Areas*. Elmhurst, IL: The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory in cooperation with the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1987.
19. Lange, Dale L. "Developing and Implementing Proficiency-Oriented Tests for a New Language Requirement at the University of Minnesota: Issues and Problems for Implementing the ACTFL/ETS/ILR Proficiency Guidelines," pp. 275–89 in Albert Valdman, ed., *Proceedings of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency*. Bloomington, IN: Committee for Research and Development in Language Instruction, 1987.
20. _____. "The Language Teaching Curriculum and a National Agenda," pp. 70–96 in Richard D. Lambert, ed., *Foreign Language Instruction: A National Agenda*. Special issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 490 (1987): 9–241.
21. _____. "The Problem of Articulation," pp. 113–37 in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 13. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1982.
22. Larsen-Freeman, Diane. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1986.
23. *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. A Report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education, United States Department of Education by the National Commission on Excellence in Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983 [rpt. Hastings-on-Hudson, NY: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1983].
24. Oller, John W., Jr., and Patricia A. Richard-Amato, eds. *Methods That Work: A Smorgasbord of Ideas for Language Teachers*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1983.
25. O'Malley, J. Michael, Anna U. Chamot, and Carol Walker. "Some Applications of Cognitive Theory to Second Language Acquisition." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 9 (1987): 287–306.
26. Richards, Jack C., and Theodore S. Rodgers. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, 1986.
27. Scherer, George A. C., and Michael Wertheimer. *A Psycholinguistic Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.
28. Smith, Philip D., Jr. *A Comparison of the Cognitive and Audio-lingual Approaches to Foreign Language Instruction: The Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1970.

29. Stern, H. H. "Directions in Foreign Language Curriculum Development," pp. 12–17 in Dale L. Lange and Cathy Linder, eds., *Proceedings of the National Conference on Professional Priorities*. Hastings-on-Hudson, NY: The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1981.
30. _____. *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1983.
31. _____. "Toward a Multidimensional Foreign Language Curriculum," pp. 120–46 in Robert G. Mead, Jr., ed., *Foreign Languages: Key Links in the Chain of Learning*. Report of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Middlebury, VT: The Northeast Conference, 1983.
32. Tarone, Elaine. "Communication Strategies, Foreigner Talk, and Repair in Interlanguage." *Language Learning* 30 (1980): 417–31.
33. Wesche, Marjorie B. "Communicative Testing in a Second Language." *Modern Language Journal* 67 (1983): 41–55.
34. Valdman, Albert, ed. *Proceeding of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency*. Bloomington, IN: Committee for Research and Development in Language Instruction, 1987.
35. van Ek, Jan. *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools*. London, Eng.: Longman, 1976.